

1 Article

2 Which factors influence attentional functions? 3 Attention assessed by KiTAP in 105 6- to 10-year-old 4 children

5 Marta Tremolada ^{1*} °, Livia Taverna ^{2°} and Sabrina Bonichini ¹

6 ¹ Department of Developmental and Social Psychology, University of Padua; Via Venezia 8 35131-Padova, Italy;
7 marta.tremolada@unipd.it; s.bonichini@unipd.it

8 ² Faculty of Education, Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, Brixen-Bressanone; Viale Ratisbona, 16 39042-
9 Bressanone, Italy; livia.taverna@unibz.it

10 * Correspondence: marta.tremolada@unipd.it; Tel.: +393474868835

11 ° These authors contributed equally to this work.

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13 **Abstract:** This research revealed the children with difficulties in attentional functions in healthy
14 children attending primary school and aimed to identify the possible socio-demographic factors
15 such as child's age, gender and school's grade that could influence attentive performance. The
16 participants were 105 children aged 6-10 years (M age=8.6; SD=1.04), 57 females, attending primary
17 schools. Family economic condition attested mostly at a medium level (63.5%) and parents had more
18 frequently 13 years of schooling. The computerized test KiTAP was administered to children to
19 assess attentional functions. Results showed higher frequency of omissions and false alarms and a
20 reduced speed in Alertness, Go/No go and Sustained Attention tasks comparing to Italian norms. A
21 series of hierarchical regression analyses were run with school grade, gender and current age as
22 independent variables and mean reaction times (and standard deviation), number of omissions and
23 of false alarms as dependent ones. Results showed male gender and attending a lower primary
24 school grade impacting on lower attentional performance in several subtests. Females showed the
25 best performances in distractibility and impulsive reaction tendencies tests, while higher school
26 grade positively influenced the divided and sustained attention. These results could be useful to
27 identify children with major attentional difficulties and some recommendations for futures studies
28 and implement attention empowerment programmes were proposed.

29 **Keywords:** Attentional functions; primary school; KiTAP; healthy children; gender; delays

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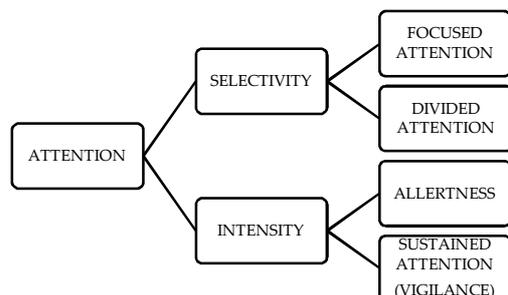
31 1. Introduction

32 1.1 Definition of attention and adopted theoretical model

33 The attention has been identified as a complex construct in psychology, not expressing a unitary
34 concept, but concerning a psychological phenomenon that interacts with all other cognitive
35 processes, such as perception, memory, behavioral planning or actions, linguistic production, spatial
36 orientation [1]. Attentional skills are a prerequisite for responding to daily environmental demands
37 and that through them the person could select and integrate all the relevant information he/she
38 perceives, coming from different sensory channels, associating them with conceptual superior
39 categories. Besides the cognitive ones, the motivational and emotional processes have been
40 recognized to have an important role too: what is perceived as not interesting, without an affective
41 value, does not become a subject of attention.

42 Numerous studies have been conducted on the construct of attention, studies that have evolved
43 and refined over the years. In the present study on attention in primary school children we adopted
44 "The Aspects of Attention" model by Van Zomeren & Brouwer [2]. The two authors schematized the
45 basic processes of attention by grouping them into two main components: selectivity and intensity.

46 Within selectivity, they distinguished "Focused Attention" and "Divided Attention", while
 47 incorporating in intensity "Alertness" and "Sustained attention" (or "Vigilance") (Figure 1)



48
 49 Figure 1: Supervisory Attentional Control (SAC), Van Zomerén and Brouwer's Basic Process Sketch,
 50 1994 [2], (in [3], p.184)

51
 52 Attention has been significantly associated with fine motor control from 5 to 11 years old, so a
 53 possible delay in attentional performance could influence other important children's development
 54 abilities [4].

55 56 **1.2 Factors influencing attention performance in school context**

57 The strong inter-individual variability in attention performances depends on a number of
 58 factors, both constitutional and environmental, that determine the different developmental paths that
 59 attention could follow. Thus, as with all cognitive skills being developed, to be understood and
 60 evaluated as fully as possible, consideration should be given to the child's characteristics, taking into
 61 account the influence of many factors [5]: biological characteristics of the child, maturation levels of
 62 the central nervous system (CNS), general cognitive and emotional capacity of the child, and, finally,
 63 environmental variables, namely his/her personal experiences, context in which he/she lives. School
 64 is one of the most significant and privileged developmental context for the child. With the attendance
 65 of primary school, the child faces new developmental challenges compared to early childhood, which
 66 will lead him/her to an important cognitive, emotional and social evolution [6]. The class child
 67 attends, people around him/her, and everything defining the child in his/her specificity assume an
 68 important role in attention performance.

69 70 **1.2.1 Role of age**

71 Attentional functions, like all the cognitive mechanisms, are primarily affected by the level of
 72 cerebral maturation. Throughout childhood and until adolescence, the so-called "executive" attention
 73 will be defined to control behaviors, to distribute cognitive resources, to plan and direct action to
 74 achieve specific goals [7]. This could not happen if the central nervous system and the targeted
 75 networks do not mature.

76 Zimmermann & Fimm [8] studied the general development of attention in healthy children aged
 77 6 to 12 years. Despite the unavoidable inter-individual differences, they observed that increasing age
 78 inevitably increased the quality of performances to attentional tests and that they, initially very
 79 heterogeneous, tended to stabilize. Reaction times, for example, very different in children aged 6/7
 80 years, decreased as their age increased, and seemed to stabilize only at the age of 13/14 years.
 81 Flexibility, important to control the focus of attention, also grew with child maturation. In addition,
 82 the results for split attention tests showed how it was influenced by age. The influence of age was
 83 more evident on performance speed than on its quality in 5- to 11-year-old Arab children, with rapid
 84 improvement until the age of 9 years, with some attentional functions (alertness and inhibitory
 85 control) that seemed to develop earlier than other functions (distractibility and divided attention) [9].
 86 Age was negatively associated with distractibility, lapses of attention and cognitive speed, indicating
 87 that these parameters decrease with age in healthy children [10]. Number of errors (incorrect

88 responses to critical stimuli) and omissions (missed responses to critical stimuli) were found to be
89 critical attention's scores for academic performance in primary school children and seemed to
90 constitute a sensitive measure of distraction.

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92 **1.2.2 Role of gender**

93 Literature - for example, Biederman et al. [11], or Siegel & Smythe [12] - offered a wide range
94 of studies that have investigated the most influential factors in attention development according to
95 gender, but in cases of disorder or pathology. For example, it was noted that Attention Deficit and
96 Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) affected more males, according to a ratio ranging from 3 to 9.
97 Gender-related differences were observed also in some KiTAP subtests: males had faster reactions
98 times, but were less accurate than females [9].

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100 **1.2.3 Role of family factors**

101 The role of family's influences on preschool and school age cognitive development has received
102 considerable empirical attention from cognitive developmental psychology researchers in the last few
103 decades [13]. The literature showed that family's socio-economic condition could influence the child's
104 attention performance, and a recent meta-analysis [14] showed how the Socio Economic Status (SES)
105 disparities played a relevant role on the executive function performance among children. Families
106 with a low cultural level and income compared to average/high ones showed a considerably higher
107 presence of ADHD. The importance of maternal education for children's academic outcomes was
108 widely recognized [15]. The sibship size did not show to limit children's cognitive development
109 during early childhood [16].

110 In conclusion, like all cognitive processes, attention has been mainly linked to continuous and
111 bidirectional interaction between genes, biological structures and functions on the one hand, and
112 environmental factors on the other [17].

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114 **1.3 Gap in the literature: Attention in healthy children**

115 A review of the literature on attention in children revealed that studies and research that
116 specifically investigated the development and characteristics of the attentional mechanisms of
117 healthy children during the primary school period were not numerous at all. For example, a large
118 part of studies investigating attention's activation took into account many other cognitive processes
119 with the aim to determine reciprocal influences. Furthermore, developmental studies on children's
120 attentional skills were limited to clinical targets, such as children with difficulty or disturbance of
121 attention [18-20].

122 Specific and shared information on attentional skills, their development, and their characteristics
123 in healthy school aged children were lacking in the literature. Time variability in a go/no go task,
124 followed by number of errors in a divided attention task and response time variability in an alertness
125 task [21] have been identified as the best measures to discriminate between children with and without
126 attention difficulties.

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128 **1.4 Research goals**

129 1. The main objective of this study was to identify children with attentional deficit attending
130 primary school comparing their scores with the Italian relative norms.

131 2. We expected that attentional functions could improve with growing age, when the child is
132 attending the last two school classes [8, 22]. The literature was divided on this topic: according to
133 some authors, attentional functions improved by increasing age, while, according to others,
134 improvements with age were not significant [22-23]. In addition, as emerged from the studies of
135 Zimmermann & Fimm [8], we intended to investigate whether the attentional performance
136 underwent a marked improvement in eight-year-old children due to the maturation of the specialized
137 brain areas, both through experience and school learning.

138 3. We expected to find gender differences in attentional functions [11, 12]. In fact, some studies
139 [24] revealed that males, for constitutional reasons, were less likely than females to stay focused, firm
140 and alert, while had faster reaction times [9].

141 4. We wanted to verify if children's family socio-economic context could influence attentional
 142 functions, specifically if socio economic status disparities could influence executive function
 143 performance among children [14].

144 5. We aimed to understand if the presence of siblings or parents' level of education could
 145 influence the quality of the children's attentional performance [15, 16].

146 With regard to the last two research questions, literature emphasized that a good growth
 147 environment, which adequate stimulation, facilitated the development not only of the attention but
 148 of all the most important cognitive abilities [17]. Confirming this, there were data from studies that
 149 found a strong correlation between children with ADHD and a low socio-cultural and economic
 150 family condition [14].

151 2. Materials and Methods

152 2.1 Participants

153 The participants were 105 children aged 6-10 years old with a mean age of 8.6 ($SD=1.04$), 57 females,
 154 attending three primary schools in a North-East region of Italy, from the second year of school to the
 155 fifth/last year. We received a valid consent form from 115 families on 132 contacted, response rate
 156 being 87.12%. Ten children were not reached in the assessments for logistic problems (teachers' other
 157 priorities during the school lessons, ill children in the data collection period, no quiet room available
 158 for assessments). Table 1 shows socio-demographic information for the participants and table 2
 159 shows family's socio-demographic characteristics.

160 Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics

Class	N	Males	Females
2 nd	19 (18.1%)	5	14
3 rd	42 (40%)	21	21
4 th	27 (25.7%)	13	14
5 th	17 (16.2%)	9	8
Total	105 (100%)	48	57

161 Table 2: Family's socio-demographic characteristics

		Mothers	Fathers
		Frequency	Frequency
Education (Years of schooling)	5 ys	1%	1.1%
	8 ys	26.8%	35.1%
	13 ys	60.8%	53.2%
	16 ys	5.2%	2.1%
	18 ys	5.2%	7.4%
	>18 ys	1%	1.1%
Employment	Looking for a job	19.7%	3.1%
	Part-time	50%	3.1%
	Full-time	30.3%	93.8%
Weekly job hours	50 or more	1.6%	17.6%
	40-49	16.1%	61.5%
	30-39	37.1%	18.7%
	20-29	38.7%	2.2%
	10-19	3.2%	0%

	0-9	3.2%	0%
		Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Current Age		40.11 (4.36)	43.01 (4.56)
FAMILY			
Frequency			
Relationship status	Married	89.1%	
	Divorced/Separated	5.5%	
	Cohabitant	5.4%	
	Single	0%	
Economic situation perceived	Low	21.9%	
	Medium	63.5%	
	High	14.6	
Home situation	Rent	6.1%	
	In progress mortgage	45.9%	
	Finished mortgage	37.8%	
	Other	10.2%	
	Range	Mean (SD)	
N° of familiars	2-6	3.9 (0.75)	
N° siblings	1-3	1.2 (0.49)	

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2.2 Procedure

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The project was successfully proposed to the Director of the school who, illustrated it to the institute councils. A letter explaining the research project was sent to families of students attending the second to the fifth grade, requesting the participation to the study through an attached informed consent form. The exclusion criterions were: no history of chronic illness or injury and absence of sensory deficiencies and other pathological aspects. First-class children were not involved as the trial might be too tiring for them, especially for data collection period that was just at the beginning of the school year (from October to December).

Out of more than 500 letters sent, 132 returned with permission to participate, but 17 children were excluded because the informed consent had been signed by just one parent. From these families, 74 filled in the socio-demographic survey and 105 children completed the attention's assessment.

Students were met individually in a silent and empty room where the laptop with KiTAP for the assessment was located. Each student was assessed in 6 of the full 8 battery tests. Administering the entire battery would have meant asking the child to be engaged for almost an hour and a half, a time too long that would have definitely affected the quality of his performance and difficult to be included in regular school activities. So Vigilance and Visual Scanning subtests were removed from the test for time-constrains.

At the end of the test the psychologist always thanked the participant, stressing the importance of his contribution. Overall, the administration lasted 30 minutes for the oldest and fastest students; 45 minutes, with the younger ones.

Scores obtained from each subject in each test were stored automatically. They were placed in a table that provided information about the subject, the examiner, and reaction times (RT) for each trial. In addition, there was a list of results with the data of the individual parameters, namely mean, median and standard deviation of RT, number of correct and incorrect reactions and number of omissions. Scores were expressed in percentiles or in T points. The program also offered graphs.

189 **2.3 Instruments**190 **2.3.1. KiTAP [8, 28-29]**

191 This test has been created to ensure optimal motivation for children during attention testing by
 192 providing a design suitable especially for younger children. By increasing motivation and
 193 compliance, validity of test should be maximised.

194 Great importance has been attributed to the attentional functions of school-age children.
 195 Assessing attention in school children is crucial for several different diagnostic questions. There has
 196 been a current lack of test instruments specifically designed to provide a differential measure of
 197 young school children's attentional abilities.

198 The battery Test of Attentional Performance for Children KiTAP has been constructed with
 199 particular attention to the same consideration that applied to the adult version of the test (TAP). The
 200 choice of KiTAP's tests has been based on the analysis of data from 148 children between the age of
 201 6 and 10 years tested with TAP. A factor analysis of the data has revealed a factor structure with five
 202 independent aspects or factors, which have been represented by a TAP subtest.

203 The factors are: "Speed" (Alertness), "Flexibility" (Flexibility), "Divided attention" (Divided
 204 Attention), "Reaction control" (Go/No go), "Visual scanning performance" (Visual Scanning),
 205 "Distractibility", "Vigilance" and "Sustained Attention". Table 3 shows KiTAP's parameters.

206 *Alertness* ("the witch"): is a central aspect of attentional intensity. Intrinsic alertness is measured
 207 with a simple reaction task. In this test a witch appears at a window and should be driven away as
 208 fast as possible by pressing the key. The median provides information on processing speed, while
 209 standard deviation indicates how much alert during the test can be maintained stable. In addition,
 210 comparing the performance of children encountered with the performance of the KiTAP normative
 211 values, the percentile median and the standard deviation in percentile were calculated.

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Table 3. Parameters in each KiTAP's subtest

Test	Execution time	Parameters
Alertness	1.5 minutes	Reaction times (RT): Mean, Median, Standard Deviation
Distractibility	3 minutes	RT Median, Omissions, False alarms
Divided attention	4.5 minutes	RT Median, Omissions, False alarms
Flexibility	1.5-2 minutes	RT Median and RT Median in percentiles, False alarms and False alarms in percentiles
Go/NoGo	2.5 minutes	RT Median, Omissions, False alarms
Sustained attention	10 minutes	RT Median, Omissions, False alarms

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215 *Distractibility* ("the sad and the happy ghost"): One of the fundamental aspects of focused
 216 attention is the ability to intentionally maintain control over the focus of attention in complex
 217 situations and under distracting conditions. Younger children stand out because of their high level
 218 of distractibility, through which they frequently lose sight of their goals from one moment to the next
 219 when something else captures their attention. A low degree of distractibility is therefore an important
 220 prerequisite for concentrated work and is of particular importance for school aged children. The
 221 purpose of this test is to perform a centrally presented decision task, while in half the trials a
 222 distracting stimulus appears in the periphery of the visual field. The central stimulus, a cheerful or
 223 sad ghost, is designed so that the distinction between cheerful and sad is only possible by focusing
 224 visually. The assessed parameters are number of omissions and false alarms: the first indicate the
 225 degree of distractibility of the subject, the second indicate when he reacted according to a "suspicion"
 226 and not for having really recognized the stimulus. In addition, the two parameters were considered
 227 as percentiles, so that we could compare our sample with norms. Scores were considered both in
 228 "distractor" state and "no distractor" state.

229 *Divided attention* ("the owls"): A common experience in daily life is that of paying attention to
 230 a number of things or events at once. This requires the ability to divide attention between
 231 simultaneously occurring events. In the present test a sequence of acoustic and visual stimuli has to

232 be observed simultaneously in order to respond to critical acoustic or visual stimulus by pressing a
233 key. One sees an owl sitting in a window which closes its eyes from time to time. This change should
234 be reacted to. Simultaneously two owls calling each other can be heard in the background. This test
235 is available in a simple and complex version. Number of omissions, median reaction times and false
236 alarms, both for acoustic stimuli and visual stimuli were measured. Number of omissions is the most
237 important parameter as it indicates the ability to divert the attention from different tasks.

238 **Flexibility** ("the dragons' house"): Selective attention refers not only to the ability to direct
239 attention toward single events and stimuli, but also to redirect attentional focus according to current
240 demands of a situation. The term "flexibility" is used to refer to ability to intentionally regulate and
241 redirect attention focus. In this test two dragons of different colour (green and blue) appear to the left
242 and right of the centre of the monitor (a gate) simultaneously. The target stimuli alternate: to begin
243 with, the key has to be pressed on the side at which the green dragon appears. At the next
244 presentation, the key has to be pressed on the side at which the blue dragon appears. Number of false
245 alarms committed and median of reaction times are the parameters considered and respective
246 percentiles are calculated for a comparison with the performance of KiTAP normative scores.

247 **Go/No go** ("the bat"): Attention comprises not only the control processes through which we take
248 in information from the environment, but equally the control of our reactions and of our behaviour.
249 This includes the decision as to whether and how we should react as well as the continual, e.g. visuo-
250 motor, control of actions. One of the fundamental processes in this connection is control of impulsive
251 behaviour, that is, ability to suppress an inappropriate reaction. The simplest way to measure
252 impulsive reaction tendencies is by means of the so-called Go/No go task. In this test one sees either
253 a vampire bat or a cat, whereas only the bat should be reacted to. The number of false alarms indicate
254 the ability to inhibit the reaction and the mean of reaction times, which indicates the speed of
255 decision-making ability. In addition, in order to compare number of alerts made by our sample with
256 those made by the normative sample, number of percentile errors was considered.

257 **Sustained attention** ("the ghosts ball"): In this task the effortful maintenance of selective
258 attention over a longer span of time is tested. In contrast to vigilance, where performance requires
259 the detection of infrequent stimuli that are hard to discriminate and are presented under
260 experimental conditions of extreme monotony, demands with sustained attention are more complex.
261 Conditions of sustained attention or concentration are more characteristic of daily life demands. This
262 task requires comparing a stimulus with a subsequent stimulus in order to determine whether these
263 two stimuli have a predetermined stimulus feature in common. Stimuli to be compared are ghosts of
264 different colour that appear consecutively at different windows of a castle ruin. This procedure places
265 demands on working memory and flexibility, and in a more complex variant, on the ability to divide
266 attention, since two of the stimulus aspects has to be observed. Parameters are: the number of
267 omissions, which indicates the performance stability, and false alarms made, specifically for the first
268 5 minutes of the test, for the second 5 minutes, and for the total test. For the latter condition, also the
269 number of omissions and percentile errors was considered, so that a comparison with the normative
270 sample of KiTAP could be made.

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272 **2.3.2 Socio-demographic information**

273 Parental education and occupational status were measured, collecting data on education (the
274 number of years of school achievement), type and average hours of job and economic status.

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276 **2.4 Statistical analyses plan**

277 Data were preliminary checked for normality adopting the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–
278 Wilk tests. Data distribution was normal, so we decided to use parametric statistics.

279 To answer the research questions, we run preliminary Pearson's correlations to identify the
280 possible significative associations between our variables. Perceived economic condition, number of
281 siblings and parental education level were not inserted in the model because they didn't otian
282 significative associations. Then a series of hierarchical regression analyses were run with school grade
283 (second year of school, third year of school, fourth and fifth year of school), gender (1=male, 2=female)
284 and child's current age as independent variables. The scores obtained at the six individual KiTAP

285 tests (mean reaction times and SD, number of missions and false alarms) were entered as dependent
 286 variables, one by one, choosing the parameters considered as the most significant in the test manual.
 287 We preliminary controlled for homogeneity of variance. We will show only the significative obtained
 288 results.

289 3. Results

290 For each KITAP test the Italian normative scores for the individual parameters were shown in
 291 the manual. These norms were given as percentiles. We assessed the distribution of children along
 292 these percentiles comparing the scores obtained in each subtest with those from Italian standardized
 293 norms (Table 4).

294 Table 4. Distribution of children's performance in standardized tests by percentiles categories

Test		<25°	25°-49°	50°-75°	>75°
Alertness	RT Median	21	16	31	37
	RT SD	32	19	27	27
Distractibility	RT Median	3	4	14	84
	Omissions	66	23	13	3
	False alarms	3	10	22	70
Flexibility	RT Median	6	14	27	59
	False alarms	28	41	14	34
Go/noGo	RT Median	9	20	31	45
	Omissions	13	77	5	10
	False alarms	33	38	18	15
Sustained attention	RT Median	14	21	26	44
	Omissions	31	26	28	20
	False alarms	46	30	19	10

295 Observing Table 4 we could see how a great proportion of children resulted in the lower level
 296 of percentiles categories in their scoring of false alarms and omissions in almost all the attentional
 297 tasks. Only distractibility and rapidity assessed by reaction times medians attested to normal or
 298 superior scores, even if exclusively in distractibility and flexibility subtests.

300 3.1 Alertness

301 We didn't obtain significative predictors of alertness median, reaction times and standard
 302 deviation.

303 3.2 Distractibility

304 For the first condition, with presence of the distractor on the screen, the significant model ($R^2=$
 305 0.13 ; $F_3=5.33$; $p=0.002$) identified female gender ($\beta=0.213$; $p=0.014$) as factor influencing the increase
 306 of distractibility RT median. On the other hand, female gender ($R^2=0.15$; $F_3=6.23$; $p=0.001$) impacted
 307 as a protective factor in making false alarms ($\beta=-0.33$; $p=0.001$).

308 For the second condition, without distractor, the significative model ($R^2=0.19$; $F_3=7.88$; $p=$
 309 0.0001) showed that disractable RT median increased by female gender ($\beta=0.38$; $p=0.0001$).
 310 Another hierarchical model ($R^2=0.15$; $F_3=6.23$; $p=0.001$) identified gender ($\beta=-0.33$; $p=0.0001$) as
 311 the variable influencing the false alarms frequency, more frequent made in males than females.

312 3.3 Divided attention

313 Considering the condition of acoustic stimuli, the significative model ($R^2=0.07$; $F_3=2.64$; $p=0.05$)
 314 identified the school grade ($\beta=-0.43$; $p=0.03$) as the factor influencing Median RT in divided attention
 315 test. By increasing the child's school grade, Median RT were lower, with a better rapidity.

316 Considering the condition of visual stimuli, the significative model ($R^2=0.21$; $F_3=9.24$; $p=0.0001$)
 317 identified female gender ($\beta=-0.17$; $p=0.05$) and higher child's school grade ($\beta=-0.47$; $p=0.01$) as
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320 predictors of lower Median RT in divided attention test. Different number of omissions ($R^2 = 0.10$; F_3
321 $= 3.97$; $p = 0.01$) resulted along child' school grade ($\beta = -0.55$; $p = 0.008$).

322

323 3.4 Go/No Go

324 Gender ($\beta = -0.33$; $p = 0.001$) influenced significantly the number of false alarms ($R^2 = 0.12$; $F_3 =$
325 4.51 ; $p = 0.005$). The same result was shown for omissions ($R^2 = 0.07$; $F_3 = 2.6$; $p = 0.05$), with gender
326 impacting significantly ($\beta = -0.24$; $p = 0.015$). Females had the best performance.

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328 3.5 Flexibility

329 A series of hierarchilar regression analyses was performed, with child's gender, current age, and
330 school's grade as independent variables and RT Median, RT Median in percentiles, False alarms and
331 False alarms in percentiles as dependent ones, inserted one by one. Results showed that the number
332 of false alarms and RT Median, both in raw score and in percentiles, didn't change significant along
333 these demographic factors.

334

335 3.6 Sustained attention

336 In the first 5 minutes of testing, child's school grade ($\beta = -0.49$; $p = 0.001$) significantly impacted
337 on the number of omissions ($R^2 = 0.18$; $F_3 = 7.34$; $p = 0.01$). Another regression model ($R^2 = 0.26$; $F_3 =$
338 11.83 ; $p = 0.0001$) identified child's school grade ($\beta = -5$; $p = 0.009$) as significant factor influencing
339 RT Median. The children belonging to higher school class showed lower RT Median and made less
340 omissions.

341 For the second part of the test, i.e. the last 5 minutes, the regression model ($R^2 = 0.07$; $F_3 = 2.84$; p
342 $= 0.04$) identified female gender ($\beta = -0.23$; $p = 0.01$) as significant factor impacting on reduced number
343 of false alarms. Omissions were influenced significantly by child's school age ($\beta = -0.59$; $p = 0.003$) in
344 another regression model ($R^2 = 0.24$; $F_3 = 10.61$; $p = 0.0001$), with higher school achievement that took
345 a better performance.

346 4. Discussion

347 To answer the first research question, we showed the distribution of children's performance in
348 standardized tests for Italian population by percentiles categories. A great proportion of children
349 enter the lower level of percentiles of false alarms and omissions in almost all the attentional tasks
350 comparing with Italian norms. On the other hand, reaction times medians, that correspond to
351 processes rapidity, is quite constant, except for alertness and sustained attention tasks, where at least
352 a third or more falls into the categories minor than the 50th percentile, under the normative cut-off.
353 In the distractibility test, children obtain good scores in rapidity, but at expense of accuracy, with a
354 higher frequency of omissions of the target stimuli. We know that response inhibition tasks load
355 mainly on central executive measures, predicting reading ability [30], so high frequency of false
356 alarms and omissions in the Go/No go test could be precursors of reading difficulties in children.

357 Dealing with the second research question, the results show that for all six KiTAP tests school
358 grade appears to be a key factor, indicating that it significantly influences the performance of students
359 throughout the battery. Their performance along the three school grade groups varies and differs,
360 especially for children attending the second class. Probably, from the age of 8 years there is a
361 transition from an immature phase to a more competent one. An important increase in attentional
362 functions performance is obtained from students attending the third year of school and it continues
363 to get better in the last two years of primary school when they are 9-10 years. These results identify
364 the school grade as a key factor, also controlling for chronological age, showing how the academic
365 experience and learning through several school cycles is even more important than the chronological
366 age. In the Alertness test no significative difference results have been found along child's school
367 grade, chronological age or gender. The performance is stable throughout the several socio-
368 demographic factors. Summarizing, we can state that the division of the sample in the three school
369 grade groups is interesting, because it allows to observe the worse performances in pupils attending
370 the second class compared to the higher classes. Chronological age is not significant in itself, but only

371 associated to academic level. Unfortunately, a limit of this study is given by the fact that we didn't
372 assess children attending the first class. Further studies should take into consideration performances
373 also among first graders enabling researchers to reach a more complete description of the
374 development of attentional functions in childhood.

375 Possible gender differences [11, 12] were also investigated in the third research question. In the
376 Distractibility test, rapidity in reaction times is mostly obtained by males, even if they commit more
377 false alarms. This suggests that males are faster, but less accurate and focused on their task than
378 females both in the condition with and without the distractor in the screen.

379 Also in the Divided Attention test children attending the last classes show the best performance,
380 while the worst is still for 7 years-olds males attending the second class: they globally commit more
381 omissions, especially when the target stimulus is visual. Females belonging to the lower classes show
382 higher reaction times. Perhaps, visual target elicits more attention than the acoustic one on the screen.
383 So 7-year-old males shows the worst ability to stay concentrated and focused on multiple tasks. When
384 the stimulus is acoustic, the Median RT are higher in children belonging to the lower classes.

385 In the Go/No go test, males show more false alarms and omissions than females: probably they press
386 the button less often and then make less mistakes.

387 In the Flexibility test there are no significant risk factor influencing the children's performance, but
388 generally it is possible to note that children are really fast, but not accurate.

389 With regard to the last test, namely Sustained Attention, in the first 5 minutes, pupils attending the
390 higher academic grades have the best performance, doing the fewest number of omissions and having
391 more rapid reactions (Median RT), while the worst performances are those attending the lower
392 classes. Male pupils committed more false alarms in the last 5 minutes. This can be explained by the
393 nature of the test: simple and particularly monotonous, the worst performances of pupils can be
394 caused by fatigue, especially in younger children (7 years), and boredom, especially in males that are
395 more in difficulty to stay focused on the test.

396 Summarizing, the analyses conducted on the scores obtained from our sample, consisting of 48 males
397 and 57 females, show that generally the worst performances are obtained from males for the accuracy.
398 Comparing the performance of males and females through the three school grade groups it is noted
399 that the number of omissions or false alarms done were generally higher for males, specifically in the
400 go/no go and distractibility tests, while median reaction times are reduced. In KiTAP trials, therefore,
401 girls generally have better results than males, showing that their performance are consistently better
402 in accuracy, even if less rapid. Males are faster, but less accurate. Females attending the lower classes
403 have more Median RT in divided attention test with the visual target in the screen.

404 The third question of research aimed at investigating whether the socio-economic context of the
405 pupil's family could influence its attentional performance [14]. The economic condition isn't a factor
406 that appears as a significant variable for attentional performance.

407 The fourth question involved siblings: being a single children or having siblings could affect the
408 quality of the attentional performance? The assumption is that the presence of siblings is an important
409 resource of rich social, emotional and cognitive stimuli [15-16]. Results from this study show that this
410 factor doesn't affect performance in favour of having siblings, but it is necessary to consider that in
411 our sample of 105 pupils, 78 of them had siblings and only 27 were single children, so it is difficult to
412 exclude this factor.

413 Table 5: Summary table of hierarchical regressions results
414

<i>RESULTS</i>	<i>Allertness</i>	<i>Distractibility</i>	<i>Divided attention</i>	<i>Go/Nogo</i>	<i>Flexibility</i>	<i>Sustained attention</i>
School grade (3-levels: 2 nd class, 3 rd class, 4 th -5 th class)	NS	NS	p<.05 Omissions visual stimuli conditions p<.05 RT Median visual stimuli conditions p<.05 RT Median acoustic stimuli conditions	NS	NS	p<.05 for number of Omissions and RT Median (first 5 min) Omissions (second 5 min)
Gender (Male/Female)	NS	p<.05 RT Median and False alarms (with and without distractor conditions)	p<.05 RT Median visual stimuli condition	p<.05 False alarms and Omissions	NS	p<.05 for number of False alarms (second 5 minutes)(second 5 min and total time)

415 5. Conclusions

416 Higher school grade matches better performance, especially in advanced attentional tasks, such
417 as divided and sustained attention, with pupils attending the lower classes who show the worst
418 performance independently from their chronological age. Observing these results, we can imagine
419 how school activities and attendance impact upon advanced attentive tasks. In this study it is
420 confirmed the distinction between basic and non-basic skills: for the basic tests (i.e. alertness,
421 distractibility, go/no go) the performance of the lower school grade pupils is at least similar to those
422 of their higher one companions, while in the non-basic skills (divided and sustained attention) the
423 child's scholastic achievement became a key factor in ameliorating child's performance.

424 The results show that females obtained a consistently higher performance throughout the three
425 age groups especially in the go/no go and distractibility tests. On the other hand, males report a best
426 performance considering rapidity, even if they are less accurate.

427 Family factors such as presence of sibling/s, parental schooling years and socio-economic
428 condition don't emerge as possible significant variables for a best attentional performance. Further
429 studies with a more homogeneous sample of these variables should investigate better these aspects.

430 **Strengths and limits**

431 A strength of this study is the opportunity to investigate the attention in an exclusive and
432 authentic way, without involving other cognitive abilities. The choice of KiTAP as the assessment
433 instrument is valuable from different points of view: it is structured through very simple tests that
434 do not require the activation of other more complex cognitive abilities, KiTAP allows a good
435 investigation of attention and its mechanisms, even with young or inexperienced children. In
436 addition, being a computer test presented in a play form and fantastic stories and having a fun and
437 colourful graphic, it is bound to motivate children.

438 The ample number of participants involved in the project, coming all from the same
439 geographical area, is a point of strength even if provenience can also be considered as a limit and
440 future research will aim at involving other primary schools in other areas to have a sample more
441 representative of all the country. Another limit is represented by the inhomogeneity of the sample
442 along age groups, with younger children (6-7 years old) less numerous than the older ones (8, 9-10
443 years old). It should be important to increase the number of participants in the first age group to have
444 a more homogeneous distribution according to age.

445 Future research could also focus on better understanding how family socio-economic condition
446 affects children's abilities, and even more, to understand if parents' minor presence in the lives of
447 children affects the quality of their attentional performance. The presence of siblings does not seem
448 to help the child reaching better attentional functioning. It would be interesting to understand better
449 this phenomenon, assessing also siblings' attentional functions or observing the sibling relationship
450 during family daily life.

451

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453 Marta Tremolada; Methodology, Sabrina Bonichini; Supervision, Livia Taverna and Sabrina Bonichini; Writing
454 – original draft, Marta Tremolada; Writing – review & editing, Livia Taverna and Sabrina Bonichini.

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